

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 23, 1873.

The Week.

THE Finance Committee of the Senate has reported, by a majority of five to two, against the extraordinary claim of Messrs. Boutwell and Richardson to issue paper-money to the amount of \$44,000,000, in their own discretion, for the purpose of "moving the crops" and otherwise assisting the community. The majority report makes several propositions which can hardly be shaken—(1) that the provision of the Act of June 20, 1864, (which was a Loan act), that the total amount of United States notes issued, or to be issued, should not exceed \$400,000,000, and such additional sum not exceeding \$50,000,000 as might be temporarily required for the redemption of temporary loans, "was not only a limitation upon previous acts authorizing issues of paper money, but a declaration of public policy and a pledge of the public faith to the national creditors that their securities should not ever thereafter be impaired by an increase in legal-tender notes"; (2) that the object of the financial measures which were adopted after the close of the war, under the Administration of Mr. McCulloch, was the still further "limitation and reduction of the volume of the legal-tender notes"; that the Act of 1866, under which this controversy has arisen, forbids by implication the reissue of notes ordered and authorized to be "retired and cancelled"; that the plain intent of the act was to "reduce and contract the currency"; "that any other interpretation would have enabled the Secretary to defeat or evade the whole act, even its funding provisions, and to increase the public debt"; (3) "that the intent and legal effect of all these acts, when fairly construed, was to reduce the maximum of legal-tender notes to \$356,000,000"; (4) that "to overthrow this construction, and establish the authority of the Secretary of the Treasury to reissue \$44,000,000 at his discretion, would require some clear and unequivocal expression of the legislative will"; (5) that the two decisions of the Supreme Court which Mr. Boutwell cited in his letter to the House Committee "have no bearing on the case before us."

The Committee draw attention also to the patent fact that the power claimed would enable the Secretary of the Treasury on his own motion to alter the value of all commodities, and impair the obligation of all contracts to the extent of at least ten per centum, and deny it to him, not only on a fair construction of the law, but on grounds of public policy, in very emphatic language. If the Senate adopts the resolution reported by the Committee, as we trust it will, it of course will relieve us from all danger of this particular species of expansion. But if politics were in a healthy condition in Washington, it would also lead to the resignation of both Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson. To be charged officially, as these gentlemen have now been, with disregarding "the plain intent of a statute"; with increasing the public debt without authority of law; with sheltering themselves in a matter of money under legal decisions which "had no bearing on the case" before them; with the assumption of a power to disturb the existing value of property and the obligation of contracts to the extent of ten per cent., is, or ought to be, to men in their position a serious matter. To be sure there has been no great harm done by the claim, but it revealed a state of mind on the part of those gentlemen which shows inaptness for their place. If any trustee displayed such extraordinary notions of duty and expediency, notions so dangerous, so wild, and so much opposed to the ordinary theory and practice of prudent business men, no *cestui que trust* of mature age would want to leave property in his hands. Mr. Boutwell's translation to the Senate, if that should happen, will relieve the country of all embarrassment as to him, but Mr. Richardson is talked of as his successor.

It will be interesting to see whether his appointment will now be ventured upon.

The Boutwell-Richardson performance, by illustrating the dangers to which we are constantly exposed as long as we use inconvertible paper as money, is apparently likely to rouse us into renewed efforts after specie payments. Mr. Sherman, the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance, has reported a bill from the Committee on Finance, which provides that the Assistant Treasurer in New York shall, after January 1, 1874, either redeem in gold, or exchange for five per cent. ten-year bonds, at his option, all United States notes presented to him in sums of \$1,000, or multiples of \$1,000; repeals limitation on aggregate circulation of national banks; secures circulation of such banks by deposit of United States bonds; relieves those banks from present obligation as to specie or legal-tender reserves, which, after Jan. 1, 1874, redeem their bills in coin or legal-tender notes. There is no probability of its passing, so there is little use in discussing it.

Some bankers have been examined by the Committee of Ways and Means touching the Syndicate operations, the most prominent being Mr. Butler Duncan and Mr. L. P. Morton of this city. Mr. Duncan's testimony or opinion on the whole bore pretty hard on Mr. Boutwell, who sat by. Mr. Duncan considers the Syndicate "an entire mistake." He saw no reason why the Treasury should not have continued the operations in the open market under which it disposed of the first \$65,000,000, as there was no pressing necessity for its making a new loan at all at that moment. Offering the five per cent. bonds in the manner resorted to had a tendency to change the United States bonds, which are now a permanent investment in the hands of small holders all the world over, and therefore not likely to be seriously affected in value by commercial or political crises, into a speculative security held by great bankers and operators, and therefore likely to be thrown on the market in great quantities in moments of panic; for this reason, the conversion as made, or as attempted to be made, was not a benefit to the old bondholders, and was likely to prove injurious in the long run to the credit of the United States. He thought the placing of the loan on the London market was the result of a "vigorous, ingenious, and able stock operation"—that is, great activity in exciting "an unnatural demand," and thus getting rid of the loan under cover of this rather than on its merits. He put down the expense of the new loan at $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., and agreed with Mr. Boutwell in thinking the three months' interest on the old bonds an inevitable loss under any circumstances.

Mr. Morton thought the Syndicate arrangement the best that could have been made at the time, and fortified this opinion by the assertion that at no time since could the new bonds have been got rid of by the persons holding them without loss, which seems to confirm Mr. Duncan's statement as to the unnaturalness of the demand. Mr. Morton also recommended the disposal of the remainder of the loan in the same manner. Mr. Maynard of Tennessee examined Mr. Duncan as to the par of exchange, a point which troubles him exceedingly, but which we trust is gradually growing clearer to him. Mr. Duncan explained that the pound sterling was worth \$4 44, plus $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., or \$4 86-65, and we recommend Mr. Maynard to grapple this fact firmly, and not let it go under any new wind of doctrine. Mr. Duncan also made some unpleasant observations, to the effect that the new loan was affected injuriously in foreign markets by the taking away of the United States banking business just about that time from the Barings, and giving it to two new and comparatively little known houses. One of them is, however, a banker simply, while the other is a New York politician.

The House Committee on Post-offices have reported a bill reducing the rate of letter postage to two cents for every half-ounce, but it appears that it is only regarded as an experiment which, if found unsatisfactory, may be abandoned in two years. The Committee also propose to recommend the compulsory prepayment of the postage on newspapers, owing to the enormous losses sustained by the Post-office in this branch of its business, through the failure of persons to whom printed matter is addressed to pay the postage, and the failure of the postmaster to account for such postage as is paid. The Committee estimate that the newspapers now transmitted through the mail ought to pay \$2,292,307, whereas they only pay \$984,940; in other words, the Government loses over a million. We know of no good reason why the stamp system should not be applied to newspapers in some form, and thus ensure payment, and save an enormous amount of account-keeping or attempts at account-keeping, besides fraud and defalcation. But if there exists any demand for the reduction of the letter postage, we have thus far failed to hear of it. We hear a great deal of complaint about the franking privilege, and we hear still more of the inefficiency of the Post-office, but we never hear any complaints about the dearness of the postage. We venture to assert, moreover, that what the country wants is not cheaper transmission but surer and quicker transmission of letters, especially in the large cities. The way in which this is done in the thickly peopled States of the East is generally admitted to be a disgrace to the nation, and we believe nine persons out of ten would approve of an addition of one cent to the postage, if it ensured us better carriage. On this point, however, it is impossible to get a hearing from Congressmen. When you speak to them of the abolition of the franking privilege, they gaze steadily at the sky, or are astonished by the odd behavior of a dog in an adjacent field; and when you propose to them the appointment of clerks and letter-carriers and postmasters for merit and during good behavior, they ask you savagely what is to become of the one-armed soldiers, and the soldiers' widows, and the sailors' orphans, and the loyal "workers"; and you then learn that the Post-office is not, as you supposed, a machine for facilitating the intercourse of members of the community, but a kind of hospital for the relief of destitute or disabled worthies of both sexes who sort letters as a kind of distraction, and whom it would be cruel to call to account for their errors or omissions.

There was too much money in the San Domingo annexation scheme for its supporters to be disheartened by its failure in Congress last year, so it has been withdrawn from politics, and is now launched as a commercial undertaking. A company with a capital of \$20,000,000 in shares of \$100 each, having Dr. S. G. Howe of Boston as its president, has entered into "a treaty with the Dominican Government," by which all that was to be granted to the United States by the Convention of 1869 is granted to the present Company, and even more. The Company gets "eminent domain"—as Dr. Howe says in the lyrical letters he has written to the *Tribune* about the matter—over the peninsula of Samana, the bay, the islands and reefs, with high and low justice, power of taxation direct and indirect, power of establishing banks, and, in fact, all sovereign powers, including the maintenance of an army and navy. Its means of making money are almost endless in their variety. In the first place, for each league of railroad, wagon-road, and telegraph line it constructs on the island it is to have a land-grant from the Dominican Government of every alternate square league within two leagues of the road or line on each side, and if there are no public lands within these limits, it may "locate" on any other public lands it pleases. It is expected that the Company will in this way shortly get hold of the entire domain of the Dominican Government. Besides this, it has unlimited power of purchasing real estate where it pleases, and will, it is expected, monopolize the entire commerce and mining of the island; in fact, there is no reason why it should not. Once the Company gets fairly started, the native Dominican Government will become a mere shadow, like the Great Mogul in the

hands of the East India Company. One provision of the "treaty" is that the Dominican Government shall grant no charter to any other company without having first offered it to the Samana Bay Company on the same terms.

There is an occasional sign nowadays that the strain which marked politics during the stress of the past few months, and indeed of the past few years, is slightly relaxing. Among such signs may be placed the report of the Congressional Committee in the contested election case which has been going on between those two political ornaments, Mr. Bowen, of South Carolina, the cadet broker and bigamist, and Mr. De Large, a colored corruptionist of some promise. In October, both these gentlemen were candidates for a seat representing the Second South Carolina District, which contains the city of Beaufort, but the greater part of whose voting population is composed of negroes who are extremely ignorant, and who as regards the right performance of a voter's duty are as ignorant as a horse or a sheep. Among these people are, however, some cunning and utterly unscrupulous file-leaders, such as itinerant preachers and the like, and the amount of cheating done in election canvasses is both amazing and amusing. The De Large men cheated enormously, and the Bowen men cheated "all they knew," which also was enormously and almost miraculously. Each side must have admired the other. But De Large got the certificate of election. Bowen at once set to work to contest, reflecting in his own mind that as long as the Treasury Department pays your bills while you are contesting, no matter if you had but four votes against your adversary's 400,000, and though you bought these four, why then, contesting is a good, legitimate carpet-bag or "scalawag" trade to follow, and as worthy as any other. Mr. De Large forthwith engaged a lawyer to defend his rights, and as far as our recollection goes this professional gentleman did indeed collect testimony enough, and that with ease, it being exceedingly thick all over the Second District; but when his employer desired to produce the same and triumphantly destroy Mr. Bowen, he was told that he could have it if he paid the cost of it.

However, Mr. De Large got leave to take more testimony, and the Committee have just got done with the examination of it. They find, first, that there was so much fraud and irregularity on both sides that no man can tell, and only the gods know, who did get a majority of the votes legally cast; secondly, they find that on the same day when, as he asserts, he was elected to Congress, Mr. Bowen caused and procured himself to be elected to the South Carolina House of Representatives, as knowing that his cause against De Large was just and righteous, but as also liking "a dead sure thing," and regarding the chances of thieving rather better, if anything, at Columbia than at Washington. Besides, the State needed reform, and Mr. Bowen felt that strongly. In the third place, says the report, the same Mr. Bowen got himself elected Sheriff of the city of Charleston for four years, and that too is an office the duties of which cannot be performed by a Congressman. The Committee, therefore, recommend that the seat in dispute be declared vacant, and the property of neither of these two model legislators.

There could hardly be a better example of the way in which a story grows in travelling than is afforded in the last comments of the London *Spectator* on Jay Gould's "restitution." The facts of that matter were, that when the Erie directors found that Gould had got in his possession over \$9,000,000 of the property of the road, they brought an action against him to recover the amount, and availed themselves of the provision of the Code which permits the arrest of the defendant when affidavit is made that the debt sued for was fraudulently contracted, but the arrest causes no inconvenience beyond the finding of bail. The mention of "fraud," however, in connection with the arrest filled the minds of some of our own editors with the notion that Gould was being pursued criminally; and when the directors accepted a "cognovit" from him, or, in other words, payment of the amount for which

they sued, these editors began to wail piteously and denounce the transaction as the "compounding of a felony," and ask if there was no justice in New York for thieves any longer. As the Erie stock rose on the news of the restitution, and Jay Gould was reputed to be dealing in it, it was announced solemnly that he had made as much as he lost by the compromise. What he bought was first asserted to be 200,000 shares, and as the stock rose ten per cent. he *might* have made on this \$2,000,000. According to the *Spectator*, however, he made \$4,000,000. Even this is, however, far short of \$9,000,000, so it makes up the total amount, and more, by alleging that "the New York papers" assert that "his total gains amount to \$12,000,000." To have made this sum, Gould would have had to hold or agree to deliver \$40,000,000 more than the whole stock of the road, common and preferred. What "New York papers" asserted this we do not know, but we advise the *Spectator*, which trusts this mysterious authority a great deal too often, to be very cautious in believing it again.

The *Economist*, which is rarely led astray, also has a severe article on "commercial morality in America," and the *Pall Mall Gazette* another, based on the report in the *Tribune* of an "interview" with Gould, in which he said he had stipulated before disgorgeing that he would be "informally admitted into the direction," that is, consulted on all important matters connected with the road; that "the road" should "lay a third rail and connect itself with the Lake Shore Road, instead of the Atlantic and Great Western"; and that "he should be allowed to make the first market bid for 200,000 shares of stock." This last assertion is on its face so absurd that it is curious that it should not have excited the suspicions of a financial paper like the *Economist*; with regard to all the others, we now beg to assure the friends of "commercial morality in America" that the story is a pure fiction; that no such conditions or any conditions at all were made with Gould; that if any such interview ever took place, and Gould gave any such information, he lied, as is not uncommon with him, from beginning to end; that there has not for a long while been a transaction of such magnitude more creditable to American morality; and that it is a curious illustration of the mischief done in this world by "a story" to find the recovery of a large amount of property, by due process of law, from a wearied or frightened knave, converted into an argument against investing money in American securities.

England is rejoicing over a year of extraordinary commercial prosperity, as indicated by the revenue returns. During the last nine months the receipts have been \$258,423,430, against \$240,520,400 during the corresponding period of last year, and two-thirds of this sum comes from customs duties on about twenty-six articles. The estimated surplus will be about \$16,000,000, which will be almost completely absorbed by the payment of the *Alabama* indemnity. On the other hand, there is a tremendous strike of the colliers and iron-workers in Wales. It is really the colliers, 11,000 strong, who have struck, but as there can be no iron without coal, the iron-men, 60,000 strong, had to join in. The *casus belli* has been found in a proposed reduction of wages to the amount of 10 per cent., which the employers justify by the fall in the price of iron, but the workmen refused to believe their statement, and on being referred to the books refused to examine them, on the ground that they would not be able to understand them, which is probably true. Even if the workmen had some knowledge of book-keeping, the books are not kept in such a way as to present this particular point in a comprehensible form; so the strike goes on, and, as it has the support of the English colliers, is likely to last long, but will probably result in the establishment of some permanent machinery of arbitration. It is due in great part to the backward condition of the Welsh laborers, who are only now making their way to the position of independence and intelligence which their English brethren have long enjoyed, and who have been

held by their employers in a contempt which numerous strikes and prolonged agitation have destroyed in England.

The Pope's last "Allocation" has reached this country in full since our last issue. It opens with a lamentation over the condition of Rome, in which "clerical persons have been torn from the foot of the altars and deprived of their immunity, and been summoned to military service" (*Anglicè*, monks have been made liable to military service); bishops have been deprived of the right of teaching, and seminaries closed; religious orders driven out, and ecclesiastical property "subjected to an enormous tribute" (*Anglicè*, made liable to taxation) and taken possession of by the state. There is, however, nothing on which so much indignation is expended as on the secularization of the property of the religious orders, and on this the Pope exhausts all his missiles. He pronounces null and void all legislation in this direction, and warns all purchasers of ecclesiastical property that their title will be worthless, and all vendors of it that they are laying up for themselves a terrible retribution at the day of judgment—which ought to "cloud the title," but does not seem to do so. His Holiness also hurls denunciations against Germany for trying to "subvert the Church from its very foundations" by "secret machinations or open force," rebukes those in authority in that country for attempting to define Catholic dogmas and rites, and persecuting the prelates and priests for "refusing to prefer the laws and will of the civil empire to the holy laws of God and the Church." Switzerland undergoes similar castigation for favoring apostates and interrupting the exercise "of episcopal authority." The Canton of Geneva, in particular, has suppressed Catholic schools, banished religious orders, and deprived others of the rights of teaching, and has been guilty of divers acts of hostility towards "our venerable brother Gaspar, Bishop of Hebron." Spain, it appears, is just as bad as Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, if not worse. That once pious country has not only been "breaking solemn treaties and conventions, but trampling every rule of right and justice under foot," by tampering with the endowments of the clergy. Bad as the Spaniards are, however, they appear to be surpassed by "an impudent band of Armenians" who are doing a little "schism" on their own account at Constantinople, behaving with the most disgusting violence and craft, having prepared their schemes in a caucus (*conciliabulum*). In fact, whichever way the Holy Father turns his eyes, he sees the laity engaged in some form of rascality, and finds consolation only in the conduct of the bishops who have charge of these unruly goats.

There has been a curious "conflict of veracity" going on lately between Spain and the United States. Some time since, Mr. Fish, thinking that Spain was not acting in good faith with regard to the proposed abolition of slavery in Cuba, sent instructions which, according to ordinary diplomatic usage, would have been of the most private kind, to General Sickles at Madrid, suggesting that he should urge upon the Spanish Government the necessity of taking steps to free the slaves—that the Government of the United States regarded the inaction of the Government of Spain with those moderate diplomatic feelings of regret and surprise proper to the occasion, but intimating that unless Spain did something or other pretty soon, other more passionate emotions would take their place, and then no one could say what might happen. The Government of Spain immediately promulgated a decree, or law, of the most satisfactory nature, whereupon Mr. Fish published his correspondence with General Sickles, and thereupon Zorilla, the head of the Ministry, publicly and officially denied the receipt of any suggestions or recommendations on the subject from Mr. Fish, General Sickles, or any one else. Now to clinch the matter, Mr. Fish publishes a despatch from Sickles of an earlier date than the rest, also of the most private character, in which he handles the Spanish Government without gloves, and in a rambling way shows the absurdity of its attempting to put down the Cuban insurrection, and gives some interesting statistics as to the number of "casualties" caused by the war.

THE NEW SAN DOMINGO SCHEME.

THE leasing of the bay and peninsula of Samana by a private corporation from the Baez Government is an excellent example of doing a thing "by hook or by crook." A small body of persons, mostly in New York, are exceedingly anxious, for reasons of their own, that the United States should become possessed of one-half of a distant island inhabited by semi-barbarous blacks. By working on General Grant's professional eagerness for a military harbor in the West Indies, and particularly on his somewhat peculiar notions of the nature and objects of foreign commerce, they induced him to take their scheme up, make it his own, and urge it on Congress with great energy and pertinacity. Neither Congress nor the public, however, could be got to entertain it, and it was withdrawn in spite of the favorable report of the Commission sent down to examine the island.

The undertakers were not, however, men to be easily disheartened. When their attack failed on one side, they began diligently to push their approaches on another. They withdrew from "politics" altogether, and, in fact, disappeared for a season from the public view, and went to work to form a company, which speedily acquired the bay and peninsula, and ever so many privileges and perquisites, from the Dominican Government, on a long lease. Their "privileges" indeed seem only to have been limited by their demands. Baez and "the people" in Dominica were willing to cede anything, and they have really given the company sovereign powers. One little right they have reserved, but really only one, and that is "the right of inspecting, or ordering the inspection of, the books of the Company." The directors, if men of average humor, must have made this concession with much hilarity. The feeling that the eye of Baez and the "Consulting Senate" will be upon them during their ninety-nine years' lease will hardly infuse any great solemnity into their proceedings. To throw a romantic air over the transaction, and indeed give it the appearance of a missionary enterprise, Dr. S. G. Howe has been put into a prominent office; and that he has entered into the enterprise in the spirit of an apostle is easily inferred from the dithyrambic letters he has been writing in the *Tribune*, describing the great things in store for Dominica and the United States through the operations of the company.

The next thing will of course be—of this Dr. Howe at least makes no secret—to get the United States Government in some manner involved in the affair, so as to compel it to take possession of the Dominican Republic. If the Company exercises even half its power, the Republic will soon become a mere dependency on it; and whether the two work well or ill together, the Company, as a body of Americans abroad possessing extensive property on foreign soil, will have a constant claim on the protection and assistance of the home Government. Their title to this will be asserted in two ways. One will be by working on the national pride of their countrymen; the other, by appealing to the cupidity of Congressmen. The public will be treated to glowing accounts of the operations of the Company—the enormous profits it is making, and the great work it is doing for civilization, and the wonderful benefits it is conferring on "the African race"; stock will be "assigned" to members of Congress, or "placed where it will do most good," in order to "induce them to look into the thing"; a powerful "Dominican lobby" will be established in Washington, with fine rooms and a good supply of champagne; "facts" will be supplied to the Washington correspondents by "intelligent Dominicans" to be "worked up" for their respective journals; a large corps of lady writers will be sent down to sit under the palms and wander along the banks of "the ever-flowing streams," and take rides among "the grand old mountains" on mules supplied by the Company, and will, under the influence of flowers and warm weather, commemorate their impressions in gushing letters to the weekly papers. In this way "enthusiasm" for Dominican annexation will be worked up like the enthusiasm for the Union Pacific Railroad, only twice as great, owing to the tropical element in the Dominican problem. New reasons for annexation will every day make their appearance. "Commerce," we shall be told,

"demands it; manufactures demand it; the army and navy demand it; posterity looks for it; the health of our people is suffering for want of it; art, science, and literature will be the better of it; the prairie breezes sigh for it; the lonely loon of the Northern lakes cries for it. In the name of our common humanity, then, open the door to this dusky daughter of the sun-kissed seas, and let her take her seat in her golden robes among her frost-crowned sisters of the continent." We would refer those who think this picture too highly colored to the following argument for the admission of Colorado to the Union. It appeared in leaded type in the columns of a leading morning paper, and it is worthy of note that the writer describes herself as "ravenous" in her "demands for woman's rights":

"I really believe a great mistake, even for Congress to make, will be made if, after coming for the third time to the door of the Union, with her silver lamp trimmed and burning, Colorado knocks in vain; is told she is too early for the wedding-feast. *The question, I understand, is simply of numbers, but it seems to me the character of the population should have some weight. It is composed of brave women and pretty fair men, and of the most dashing, daring, wideawake boys and girls on the continent.* In the mountains are miners of the best quality, the unsettled and adventurous sort pushing westward to the more tempting treasure-fields of Utah and Nevada. Along the river-courses and in the towns are the very pick of Eastern agriculturists, mechanics, and railroad men. There is a great deal of social refinement and intellectual culture among the women of Colorado, that would show well even at a Washington reception, and there are men in any one of the Colorado colonies who might stand up against the best eleven of the Forty-second Congress, and be bold."

When the "tidal wave" had done its work, and the Congressmen had "looked into the thing," and the politicians had "fixed it," the terms of transfer would have to be arranged; and here the Sentimentalists would hang up their harps and go home, and "the practical men" would come out from their holes and corners and go to work. If the Company only exercises a quarter of its rights, the number of things it will have to sell to the Government—the telegraphs, railroad lines, piers, wharves, bridges, warehouses, dry and floating docks, buildings, lumber, and stores of all kinds—will, to the common eye, be past counting; but there will, nevertheless, be no difficulty experienced in making the bills up, and perhaps, at the rate we are going, not much difficulty in getting them paid. It is already almost impossible to gainsay a great corporation, and the greatest we have yet seen is but a pigmy to what this Samana Bay Company may become.

Dominica once annexed, the conquest or absorption of Hayti would soon follow, almost as a matter of necessity. For the government of such communities as these are, either for their good or for ours, the Constitution supplies no machinery. Principle, and the precedent set at the South, would compel us to admit them to the Union as equal States, and the island would cut up naturally into two, sending four members to the Senate and several to the House. Bands of white men would of course undertake, as at the South, to show the Africans "how to run the machine," and we should then have a pleasant addition to the existing complications of our politics. We may rely on it, the "Custom-house party" at San Domingo and Port-au-Prince would not be in any respect inferior in ingenuity or audacity to its great prototypes nearer home; and it is safe to conclude that each election would give us four or five governors and as many legislatures, who would barricade themselves in halls and other strongholds and bid defiance to their enemies, till an Attorney-General's "opinion" or a battalion of infantry came from Washington to settle the dispute. The influence on the Senate and House, and on the morals of politicians of the Southern States, and of "the wild-cat States" of the West which have been recently admitted, is already pretty well known to our readers. We do not need to enlarge on it. Let no one, however, read the poetical effusions of the Dominican undertakers without thinking of these things, of South Carolina and Louisiana, of Kansas, of the *Crédit Mobilier*, and without asking himself how long the Government can stand the indefinite expansion of this awful volume of ignorance and corruption. There is no way of hindering as many gentlemen as please from investing money in San Domingo, and buying privileges from Baez and his people, but there is a way of hindering the full execution of the programme by drawing the United States into the net.

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hardly any Celtic roots left in its language. It presents the curious and, I believe, most exceptional instance of a race which completely forgot its own language after it was conquered by another race. The French language is really quite Latin, and more German roots than Celtic are mixed up with the Latin ones. What can be the reasons of such a phenomenon? They can only be found in the history of the Roman conquest of Gaul.

I was talking on this subject not long ago with M. Brachet, and he said to me, "Have you ever read a small book called 'Petite Histoire du peuple français,' by M. Paul Lacombe?" I had not even heard of it; but I immediately sent for it, and after reading this small volume, which costs only twenty-five cents, it immediately struck my mind that I had never seen any book better adapted to give to strangers a correct idea of French history in its great features, and of the growth and development of the French nationality. It is no small praise of this modest work to say that it would be an admirable text-book for primary schools (for your excellent American schools especially), and that those who are the most familiar with the great works of the best historians, the 'History of Civilization' of Guizot, the 'History of Southern Gaul' by Fauriel, and, in fact, all the historical literature of France, will not find in M. Lacombe's little volume a single error or any false judgment. I hope I am not in the state of mind of La Fontaine, when he met all his friends with the question, "Have you read Baruch?" I really am very much struck by the immense amount of solid information which is found in this 'History of the French People,' and which is almost concealed in an unassuming, simple, and quiet exposition of the transformation of French society. It is hardly possible for a foreigner to get acquainted with all the details of French history; whoever wishes to have an accurate knowledge of it must read at least three hundred volumes of original documents and memoirs. But it must interest everybody, the philosopher, the lawyer, the moralist of all countries, to see how the French nationality was formed, out of what elements, and to understand what has been in this great work the part of Rome, of the church, of the barbarians, of the feudal system, of monarchy, of the Revolution. M. Lacombe enters into this vast and difficult subject with a fair spirit of equity; he is evidently a Liberal, and a strong Liberal, but he is also a critic, and he does not judge French royalty, for instance, or the church, in the spirit of a sectarian. Whatever may be thought of the actual influence of the Catholic Church, it is not difficult to prove that this church was for four centuries the best protection of Gaul against the cold cruelty of Rome and the brutality of the barbarians. It is not so much to Rome and its functionaries that Gaul surrendered what seems the dearest treasure of every race, its own language, as to the softening and mild influence of the church.

We speak now in vague terms of the cruelty of Rome; let us try to realize it. Cæsar prided himself on having sold as many as a million of Gauls as slaves in Rome. The conqueror was followed everywhere by slave-dealers, and Cæsar had the greatest interest in their cruel operations. These men not only lent him money, they were his electioneering agents in Rome. M. Lacombe does not relate these curious facts, but he shows well the effects of the Roman administration in Gaul. Brittany, it is well known, became a desert, and was only settled afterwards by emigrants from Great Britain. Most Gauls became, under the name of *coloni*, real slaves. This painful period of the administration of Gaul by Rome is not sufficiently dwelt upon by M. Lacombe; and he does not sufficiently explain the important part played by the church when the Roman Empire became divided. It is a very significant fact, however, that the German tribe which succeeded in getting possession of Gaul was the most barbarous and the smallest of all; the Franks were only a handful, if you compare them with the Burgundians and the Visigoths, who had taken possession of the Jura, the valleys of the Saône and Durance, of Toulouse and the South. But the Burgundians and the Visigoths were Arians, heretics, and the whole influence of the Catholic Church was exerted in favor of Clovis and his cruel followers, who had made themselves Catholics. The German hordes which conquered Gaul were not so large as may be supposed. We have seen by a recent experience that a handful of organized soldiers can rule a whole province. A few battalions of Germans reigned by terror in Touraine, in Champagne, in large provinces; the Gallo-Romans were accustomed to obey; they made very little resistance to the invaders. The first Frank kings were merely military commanders. The great Roman centralization disappeared, and the feudal system was established. Every military service was followed by a grant of land, and by degrees the domain thus given became hereditary. A great process of disintegration of sovereignty began, which lasted several centuries; it was followed by a contrary process. The atonic or nebular state of the Middle Ages was not without its advantages. The slave of antiquity could be sold, without his family, far from the estate where he was born. The serf of the Middle Ages could not be separated from the land.

The tenth and the eleventh centuries, on the other hand, were filled with private wars, as the old Roman idea of a centralized justice had quite disappeared. There were no real tribunals for the lords of the land; the modern law of nations, which forbids any unnecessary cruelty towards non-combatants, was unknown. One can imagine the misery produced by such a state of things. It is, however, not a little singular that the Normans, who began their invasions at that time, and who soon conquered Normandy, attained a remarkably high culture in the course of a century. Their architecture shows it clearly enough. This extraordinary Scandinavian race seems to have a wonderful elasticity; the first Normans were pirates, their sons and grandsons became feudal lords; they forgot their own language completely, and adopted the Latin language, which had already assumed its French form. The civilization of Normandy was much advanced for the period at the time of the English Conquest. Wherever they have gone—to Sicily, to Canada—the Normans have shown a marvellous power of adaptation and commanding abilities; they are a truly imperial race.

The Capetian dynasty found its origin in the first struggles against the Normans. It was essentially a popular, a Parisian dynasty. The Capetians were not the successors of Charlemagne; they were strong allies of the clergy, which was at that time half military, and they preserved order, first in the small horizon of the district of Paris, and afterwards in Touraine, in Poitou, Aquitaine. Consciously or unconsciously, they became the adversaries of the feudal system. Wherever there was a quarrel, they interfered in the interest of peace and justice. France is really the work of this dynasty. I have no time to dwell on its long and patient efforts, which culminated in the administration of Richelieu, of Mazarin, and of Louis XIV. Whatever may be said against the Grand Roi, whatever were his errors, it must be acknowledged that his image, surrounded by such warriors as Turenne, Condé, Vendôme, Villars, Catinat; by a host of great men, Descartes, Bossuet, Pascal, Molière, Corneille, Racine, marks an era in the history of the world. But the condition of the people was far from happy in the seventeenth and in the eighteenth centuries. Nothing can be more interesting than the account M. Lacombe gives of the general state of society before the French Revolution. The system of taxation was really barbarous. The *taille* was the land-tax, and was only paid by a third of the inhabitants. The noblemen, the priests, and the officials were all exempt from it; and they contrived to have their farmers, when they had any, exempted. The *taille* was fixed every year by a royal council for each *intendance*. Nobody could ever know how much he would have to pay the next year. The distribution of the tax among the inhabitants was nearly arbitrary. The collectors were responsible for the amount of the tax; they taxed, in consequence, the most prosperous of the peasants very heavily, for fear of not being paid by others. Thence it became customary for the French peasants to conceal their fortune, to dress miserably, to live in hovels. Even now this class is sordid; the peasant is always afraid of appearing too rich; he hides his money. Every sign of prosperity was punished in old times by a sudden increase of the *taille*. Bois-Guillebert has given a graphic description of the collectors, who met in a public-house, and there fixed the *taille*. They were often met with imprecations, and they went away. They came back with soldiers and huissiers; seized, in the refractory villages, all the cows, even the furniture of the houses. The most industrious, the best peasants, became the victims of the lazy, of the disorderly. How can we wonder at the famous description of La Bruyère?

Lacombe is very partial to the French Revolution; it certainly rendered an immense service in abolishing the privileges of the nobility and the clergy; but, after many years, the condition of the French peasantry is not so different as might have been hoped from what it was in the last century. You can still find in the heart of the Gaul this frightful hypocrisy of misery, which comes down from the Gallo-Roman colonies and from the serf of the Middle Ages; and this fear of every outward progress, of every sign of prosperity, is the chiefest obstacle to a high culture. France owes to it an immense and seemingly inexhaustible reserve of capital, but frugality may become suicidal, and the principle of equality may drag all men down as well as lift them all together.

TAXATION IN ALSACE-LORRAINE.

STRASSBURG, Dec. 13, 1872.

IT is a well-known fact that the Alsatian mind is, in general, of a more material turn than the German. With an energy almost equalling that of a genuine Yankee, the Alsatian devotes himself to the pursuit of the goods of this world, and even a Parisian hardly knows better how to enjoy them. This characteristic trait of our population has been often adduced as almost a guaranty that in a few years they would be completely reconciled to their fate. Though their attachment to France is sincere and strong, yet the *Thaler* will weigh heavier in the scales; that has been from the beginning

and is still one of the principal reasons of the hope entertained by most Germans for a speedy re-assimilation of the Reichslande. That their pockets would find their account by the change of government was hardly doubted by any German somewhat acquainted with their former condition. Only the large manufacturing interests, it was allowed, would form an exception for some time to come. Now, it is a curious fact that exactly the peasants, and all other classes of people with but modest means, are complaining the most and the loudest, and their complaints are to a great extent well founded. They do not earn less money than they used to, but they are more heavily taxed, and that is the standard by which the great mass—so far as their relations to the Government are concerned—commonly measure their material well-being. Yet, on the other hand, the Imperial Government cannot be charged with having fallen into the gross mistake of intentionally overburdening the people in order to subdue them. We are still under the dictatorship of the *Reichskanzler*, and it is felt in every respect that we are governed by an iron will; but this iron will stands itself under the control of the enlightened ideas of a profound statesman. Inclined by nature to a most reckless absolutism, Bismarck has learned by experience that whip and spur are not always the right means to break unruly spirits. The Government is really desirous of winning the people's good graces by justice, mildness, and assiduous care for the promotion of their general welfare; and, what is of no less value, the people are thus far, to a rather astonishing degree, willing to acknowledge that. Yet it is an undeniable fact that everybody, and especially the poorer classes, have now more than ever before to dread the tax-gatherer in all his various forms. The explanation is to be found in the other fact, that the old French laws, with but a few exceptions, are still in force, while they are executed by German officials.

It was one of the immoral maxims of the Imperial Government of France to fix the taxes at a really exorbitant rate, in order to collect them with great leniency. This way of seeking popularity by systematically demoralizing the officials and the whole population has, of course, been utterly repudiated by the present Government; everybody has now actually to pay what was formerly but the nominal amount of the taxes, and that is often simply ruinous. The peasants (farmers) are, perhaps, worse off than all the rest. They work hard and with intelligence, and the soil is rich, but, nevertheless, as a rule they are always short of ready money. Any of those "extraordinary" events which occur every day—a burial, a marriage, a bad crop—renders a loan necessary, and every loan is with them a real calamity. There are no agricultural banks where the peasant could get money to meet sudden exigencies, and much less to use for the improvement of his lands. A mortgage is the beginning of his ruin, for, beside the interest, he has to pay the Government 5 per cent., and his neighbors begin to regard him as a lost man as soon as the rumor spreads that he has been obliged partly to mortgage his estate. So he looks out for some friend to lend him money without a mortgage. Such friends are always on hand, and their rate of interest exactly corresponds with the genuineness of their friendship: the usurers are now the curse of the Alsatian peasants, as in the time of Napoleon I. The Government, however, is almost still more merciless than the usurer. Suppose a peasant divides his estate, valued at 20,000 francs, but encumbered with a mortgage of 12,000 francs, amongst his eight children, one son getting the estate to pay one-eighth of the real property, i.e., 1,000 francs to every one of his brothers and sisters; now the Government considers the mortgage as not existing, and charges at first $1\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. for the whole nominal value of 20,000 francs=220 francs; secondly, 4 per cent. for seven-eighths of the mortgage=420 francs; and thirdly, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for transferring the property of 20,000 francs=300 francs. So the estate of an actual value of but 8,000 francs is charged by the Government with 940 francs. Suppose furthermore the son who got the estate dies before he has been able to pay his brothers and sisters their share, he leaves to his heirs, in fact, but 1,000 francs, as there is a mortgage of 12,000 francs and debt of 7,000 to be paid out of its full value of 20,000 francs. The Government, however, still regards only the 20,000 francs, and charges $6\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. on them, equal to 1,220 francs, i.e., 122 per cent. of the whole real property left. Perhaps the case is not quite so bad, and the happy heir is still left in possession of 500 francs, which he invests in real estate, in a hut. The Government steps in again and gets, under various heads, 39 francs 5 cents out of him. If but 300 francs were his own money, so that he had to borrow 200 francs, he has to pay the Government 30 francs 60 cents more. These examples will amply prove that the present Government cannot be quick enough in doing away with the *enregistrement* and the *droits de mutation par décès*. The division of the soil having been carried to almost the extreme in Alsace, they are all but ruinous to the peasants.

Another tax deserving special mention is as heavy, and in many cases no less iniquitous. It is a kind of income tax, the rent of the lodgings occupied by the taxpayer serving as the standard by which the amount of

the tax is determined. The French collector, like the American appraiser was wont to put down a lodging of 1,000 francs at 700 or 600; thus, in fact, reducing the nominal tax of 10 per cent. to 7 or 6 per cent.; the German collector sticks mercilessly to the letter of the law, the tax being, therefore, at present equal to an income tax of about 2 to $2\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. Only with those happy few whose income is considerably larger than their yearly expenses, the percentage is proportionately smaller, while with that numerous and most unhappy class who have to live upon a fixed salary, it is steadily increasing. A. is in the Government employ, and receives a salary of 1,000 thalers. He makes his calculation, and finds that he is able to support a wife. The lodging of the young couple costs 600 francs, the tax is accordingly 60 francs. After a year a baby appears, and the landlord raises the rent to 700 francs, and the Government taxes him 10 francs more upon the supposition that he has more to spend than last year. There is a kind of bitter humor in this conspiracy between the ever-greedy landlords and the Government.

The exact amount of the real-estate tax, and the manner of assessing it your correspondent has not been able to ascertain. One of the principal Imperial officials maintained that it was not heavy. The peasants, however, seem to think very differently, although they admit that it is inconsiderable in comparison with the above-mentioned burdens. The head-money (*Kopf-geld*) is also of no great consequence: its equivalent for those who are unable to pay it is three days' work on the public roads.

The only class of producers thus far considerably benefited by direct action of the Government are the wine-growers. In former times they were utterly unable to compete with the wine-growers of Southern and Western France. Even now they find it difficult, although the duties levied on the French wines serve them as a protective tariff. The difference in the price is, however, sufficiently reduced to be outweighed, to a great extent, by the predilection most of the Alsatians have for the wine of the country, which has quite a decided character of its own. Besides—and it is this for which the producers as well as the consumers have to thank the Government—the heavy *octroi* formerly levied by the cities has been abolished. For the former class, it is perhaps of still greater importance that their wine has to pay no duty on the other side of the Rhine. It does not seem quite improbable that the Alsatian wines, mixed with the light wines from the Moselle, will find a market in Silesia and other provinces of Germany not producing themselves any wine. As to the tobacco-growers, another interest of much importance, it is hardly doubtful that they also will soon find themselves in a better condition than they were under the French Government. The Imperial Government, which had until now retained the monopoly, has just sold its stock, etc., it is said, for 1,800,000 francs.

To give satisfaction to the just demands of the people, however, it is not sufficient to mend here a little this year, and there a little the next year. The whole manner of raising revenue has to undergo a thorough reform. Everybody knows, of course, that the French laws will not remain in force for ever; but the people are growing impatient, and not without reason. Such a radical change of the whole system of taxation is no child's play; but the provinces were not annexed yesterday, and no one has the slightest idea if the change will take place in six months or in three years. The *Courrier du Bas Rhin* remarked the other day with great justice, "You have taken from us what was dear to us in our connection with France; now, if you want us to cease complaining of our fate, and to become good Germans, at least make haste to abolish what was always hateful to us in our connection with France." Here is the rub, and the Government *should* make haste.

In conclusion, I might mention an interesting fact to show how "the sober second thought" is beginning to carry the day over the heart-burnings, even where they are the strongest. The manufacturing princes of Mulhausen had the strange presumption to ask permission to send their goods, intended for the Vienna Exposition, to the French department. When this was refused, they demanded a separate building, for which they were willing to pay a very considerable sum. This also not being granted, most of them—only about six standing grimly aloof—have finally made up their minds to appear as Germans at the world's fair. Thus far about 600 firms have declared their intention to exhibit at the Exposition—manufactures, agriculture, *Forstwirtschaft* (economy of forests), and mining each being represented by about 150.

Correspondence.

MORE ABOUT THE ALABAMA DAMAGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments upon the communication in your paper of January 16, in relation to the "Alabama damages," you agree with your corre-

spondent that the Legislature must determine where the fund is to go, and that it is not trammelled, as a court would be, by any technical rule of municipal law. You, however, contend that the Legislature is bound to follow the analogies of the law. Under your rule, as I understand it, if the builder of the *Alabama*, or any other British subject, had insured some of our ships, and paid the loss, and the ship had been abandoned to him, he is entitled to his share of the money, although it might be shown that he had received twice as much in war premiums from American citizens as he had paid in losses.

You say you find no fault on the score of abstract justice or "equity" with the rules I lay down.

The precise issue between us is whether Congress should follow the analogies of the law, or whether it holds the fund to distribute equitably to relieve the actual hardships. It is understood that there is a difference of opinion among those who acted for the United States—that Mr. Evarts and Mr. Beaman take the former view, while Judge Hoar and Mr. Cushing take the latter. It is undoubtedly a fair question for discussion.

The question whether the courts even are bound by the rules of law in administering a fund of this kind has been raised. Sir Thomas Plumer, Master of the Rolls, in a case before him in 1818, said of a fund of this kind: "Whatever the individual obtains is not on the ground of right or private property, but of hardship and injustice. Though this therefore is not a case of pure donation, as of a gift without anything in the nature of consideration, yet for the purpose of being contrasted with property or right it is donation, not a restoration of a former right, but from a new fund, belonging to an independent authority; a grant to the sufferer for what he lost." Although Judge Story did not concur with the view as a rule for courts, may it not be a proper view for a legislature to take?

Is abstract justice such a "very queer article" that a legislature must shun it and do injustice in order to conform to the analogies of technical law?

...

[We ought to have mentioned in our article last week that this question about the rights of the insurance companies in this controversy was not raised until recently. From 1863 until the close of the war the claims of the insurance companies against the British Government were regularly received and presented by Mr. Adams and Mr. Seward on precisely the same footing as those of individuals, and were received by the British Government in the same manner. Moreover, it was understood by insurers and insured all through the war that the underwriters succeeded to all the owners' rights as against the British Government in all cases of total loss. The idea that the underwriters' total receipts ought to be looked into in order to ascertain the exact amount to which they are entitled is of quite recent origin. It is worth notice, too, that the preparation to deal with their claims in Congress is conducted under the superintendence of that great moralist and "equity" man, Mr. B. F. Butler, and, characteristically enough, in profound secrecy. He has taken the most extraordinary precautions to prevent the public's knowing what he is about, partly in order to prevent discussion, but partly because he never feels like himself till the night falls. Our correspondent's closing remark begs the question.—ED. NATION.]

THE OTHER VIEW OF NAPOLEON III.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the prevailing tone of the criticism of our press upon the life and character of the late Emperor of the French, which is to my mind exceedingly harsh, and in great part devoid of common sense, I beg that you will allow me to publish in your paper an estimate of the man and of his government which I believe to be shared in by many close observers of French history, even although it be a different estimate from that which will be given in your own editorial columns. I have no desire to open a controversy on what would be an interminable theme; my only purpose is to put on record opinions which, though entertained by a minority doubtless of our people, are nevertheless entitled to respect.

Those, then, whose views I present start with the notion that the reign of the late Emperor cannot be properly estimated apart from the previous history of France. They regard the French people as having been, in 1789, totally unfitted by their ignorance, and by their utter want of practice in the art of governing themselves, for a republic. They see clearly, however, that by the destruction of the old nobility, the restoration of the

monarchy as the permanent form of government became impracticable. They regard the First Empire, therefore, as the only form of government possible for the French people at that point in their history. They regard the forcible expulsion of Napoleon I. from France, by the allied powers, as necessarily undermining the principle of allegiance, and bringing about a series of experiments in which the very form and structure of the government were made to depend upon the popularity of a particular king or of his counsellors. They do not undertake to justify the revolutions of 1830 or 1848, but they see in them the proof that the old monarchy is without roots and without real support. They regard the Republic of 1848 as an attempt to govern a great country, the masses of whose people were, through lack of education in self-government, entirely unfitted for the republican system, by a self-appointed oligarchy, composed no doubt to a considerable extent of excellent men and of enlightened thinkers, but containing also bad and dangerous components; having no reliance on the masses of the people, yet governing in the name of liberty and using the forms of the Republic. In fact, they regard the Republic of 1848, as it evidently was regarded by France at that time, as obviously a provisional government, which, having no justification in the tyranny of the late king, no weight with the people, and no roots in the past, was, every day that it lasted, a cause of alarm to the friends of civilization in France and elsewhere. They see in the *coup d'état* of 1851 the violent close of this exceptional state of affairs—an act not to be justified on strict grounds of morality, certainly; but also an act by no means to be confounded with a deliberate overthrow of a lawful free government. They are not blind to the almost universal satisfaction with which the event was accepted by the nation; nor are they forgetful of the many years of peaceful order which succeeded it, and the benefits thence resulting.

They have seen in the Emperor a hard-working and enlightened monarch; a man who devoted more time, and labor, and intellect to the task of governing his country than any of his contemporaries. They do not believe that in the matter of personal morality or of domestic duty he fell below the average of the men of his time similarly situated. They are unable to recognize in the friend of Cavour and of Cobden either the incapacity or the lack of honest purpose to carry out wise and enlightened measures which so many deny the Emperor to have possessed. They see in the alliance with England and the war with Russia a solid benefit conferred upon the European family of nations; recognizing as they do the immense value of the extinguishment of that jealousy between France and England which has led to so many bloody wars, and the disastrous consequences to European progress had the Emperor Nicholas been allowed to extend his too powerful reactionary influence in Germany by the conquest of Turkey. They find that the Italian war of 1859 brought a great and permanent benefit not only to Italy but also to all Europe. Italy, changed from being the hotbed of revolution into a constitutional monarchy, has amply justified the enlightened policy which led Napoleon into his alliance with Cavour. While they cannot be blind to the fact that the Emperor Napoleon, in common with the leading statesmen of England, considered the victory of the United States over the rebels as impossible, and that he consequently urged upon England a prompt recognition of what he considered as a fact, they are equally free to recognize the perfect neutrality with which he observed the duties of his position. They deplore the Mexican expedition as the great mistake of his reign; but they are free to confess their doubts as to the advantages to Mexico which have resulted from its failure.

They do not find any evidence in the Emperor's policy towards Germany of a resolution to bring about a war. They blame him for not having been satisfied with the abandonment by the Prince Leopold of his candidature. They cannot but admit that the French Government asked what the Prussian Government ought not to have been asked to do. But they are not blind to the fact that the affair was of Bismarck's making; that a frank and open policy on his part in the outset would have given no ground for a quarrel. Nor do they forget that it was the (so-called) liberal opposition that had been goading the Imperial Government into a war with Germany ever since the battle of Sadowa.

A writer in the *North American Review* for January has said:

"Both of the Napoleons maintained their hold upon the nation through two classes of people—the first embracing a small but intelligent minority, who believed in an absolute government as the best which the nation could have; the second, made up of the vast but ignorant majority. With the firm support of the former class in the cabinet, and with the overwhelming numbers of the latter as a kind of ultimate court of appeal, Napoleonism was for a long time able to sustain itself, even in opposition to the great mass of the intelligence of the nation."

This we regard as substantially true. But our conclusion differs from that of the writer of the article. We regard a nation, "overwhelming numbers" of whose people are ignorant, as a nation which cannot be successfully ruled by the majority of the intelligent classes, unless those intelligent

classes constitute a powerful aristocracy. A country in which the vast majority is ignorant can be ruled only by a despotism or by an oligarchy. For the "intelligent classes," who, of course, must differ among themselves, to establish a new government, without a history, without traditions, without previous experience of any value, and to attempt to carry it on without the prestige of great names or families, by a crude adaptation of the methods of republicanism, is not only to attempt an impossibility, but to war with the most deeply rooted prejudices of human nature. Such a people as this must have a government of some traditional authority, identified with the national history, recalling the days of the national prosperity and glory. To liken Paris and Lyons to Boston and Philadelphia, the peasantry of Gascony to the yeomen of New Hampshire, is absurd.

The writer in the *North American* goes on to say:

"When at last it [Napoleonism] gave way, *crumbling into very dust at the mere touch of the enemy*, the world expressed its surprise, and fell to studying the causes of the disaster. What had long been understood by the most intelligent observers came now, on closer observation, to be generally admitted, namely, that Napoleonism has proved a lamentable failure, and that it may be well characterized as a *system of appearances without substance, and of pretence without reality*."

What ideas of "a mere touch of the enemy" the learned writer may entertain I know not. Neither the formidable armies of the Germans nor the ability of the Count von Moltke has ever given rise to a similar reflection in my own mind. But the remark, absurd as it is, shows how easy it is for a writer on history to idealize everything, and to fail to examine the facts. The truth is, that, taking into account the immense advantage possessed by an invading army since the building of railroads, the invasion of France in 1870 was more dangerous than the invasion of Russia in 1812, which was at the time the greatest military expedition of modern times. And disastrous as the war was for France, every one must admit that the means employed to effect her overthrow were unprecedented. She went down under the attack,—but not at "the mere touch" of the enemy. Prussia encumbered in 1806 in half the time, and Austria, in 1866, in less than that. If the French Emperor had acted with the prudence of his Austrian brother, he would have saved his throne. It is true, the French were greatly outnumbered; but they suffered more from incompetent generals than from being outnumbered. Bazaine surrendering 130,000 men; the insane march of McMahon to the Belgian frontier—these are what ruined France and dethroned the Emperor. Am I asked, Is not the Empire responsible for this incompetence by its demoralizing effect on the tone of public men? I ask in return, What would have been the result if Leo had met McClellan on the Peninsula with twice his numbers? Or if the sapient strategy of Lincoln and Stanton in the Valley had been met not only with Stonewall Jackson's skill, but by an overwhelming force of numbers at his back? I cannot forget the hasty opinions of our English brethren on the value of our institutions expressed at these junctures, and I call upon those who desire only the truth to remember how long it has taken a nation like ours to select the best generals.

The French put into the field by the first of August over 250,000 men, and by the first of September 150,000 more. These facts alone confute the charge that the Empire was "a system of appearances without substance, and of pretence without reality." But these armies were sacrificed through lack of skill. The Emperor undoubtedly showed himself an incompetent general, and painfully irresolute in all his decisions, during the campaign; so did his chief officers. The enemy were in overpowering numbers; they lost no time, they made no mistakes; the regular army of France went down, and the Empire with it. But does any one, even the bitterest opponent of Napoleon, believe that Louis Philippe or Charles X. would have survived such an invasion as this?

I have perhaps said too much; I have, however, said what I believe to be true. I have said but little of the Emperor's faults, but in the existing state of public opinion it is not necessary to enlarge upon them.

J. C. R.

Boston, January 13, 1873.

SOME FACTS FOR "GOVERNOR" KELLOGG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Accompanying this we send you a copy of a pamphlet containing a condensed statement of the proceedings in the State Courts of Louisiana with reference to the Boards of Returning Officers. You will see by this that your New Orleans correspondent errs in his explanation of the case, as follows:

First: The Lynch-Hawkins Board was enjoined by Judge Dibble, as well as the Warmoth-Wharton Board. (See page 4.)

Second: The Eighth District Court, Judge Elmore presiding, subsequently dismissed all the cases relating to the boards, for the reason that the law approved Nov. 20, 1872, abolished the offices, and thereby terminated all

rights or claims upon them, on the part of either plaintiffs or defendants. (See page 4.)

Third: The Lynch-Hawkins Board made their promulgation under Judge Durell's decision, and without any official returns.

Fourth: The Lynch-Hawkins Board was restrained by the Eighth District Court from counting votes, or assumed votes, not included in the returns, and from excluding votes except upon the affidavits and testimony required by law; and to this injunction they paid no attention whatever. (See page 7.)

Fifth: The list of persons assumed to constitute a legislature was placed by the United States Marshal in the hands of the officer commanding the United States forces occupying the State House, and that officer admitted to the building only those thus designated.

Sixth: The Legislature thus composed impeached and removed Governor Warmoth, partially remodelled the State judiciary, and declared the election of Kellogg and Antoine, being all that time, and at this moment, protected by United States soldiers who now occupy the State House. Very respectfully yours,

E. B. WHEELLOCK,

ALBERT C. JANIN,

Representing Citizens' Committee of Louisiana.

DURANT DA PONTE,

Representing Joint Committee Louisiana Legislature.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 17, 1873.

PUBLISHING COLLEGE EXAMINATION PAPERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Everybody has heard of the humorist in Newport and his new fence. The native Newporter is said to spend his time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing. In deference to this amiable weakness, a placard was put on the fence, running somewhat in this wise:

"NOTICE.—This fence is to be built by John Jones, and painted by John Smith: it is to be 127 feet long and 4 feet 4½ inches high; it is to be done on the 27th of August."

A university in this State caters to a morbid public curiosity quite in the Newport way by printing the examination-papers of the year in the annual catalogue. Whether the publication of such domestic details is likely to do any good, either to the student in search of a university to go to, or to the public at large, is doubtful. Examination-papers necessarily give a very imperfect idea, even to scholars, of the character or amount of the instruction given. To the outside public, who cannot see the bearing of the conundrums put, or their connection with the daily teaching, they must often seem puerile, sometimes even farcical, and must tend to lower the low estimate in which universities are too apt to be held by men of affairs. Besides, public curiosity is as insatiable as the daughters of the horseleech. If Mr. Beecher should put a notice in the *Christian Union* that he was to dine to-morrow on beefsteak and fried potatoes, some fidgety spirits would never rest till they were told whether the potatoes were Jackson Whites or the Early Rose, and how he came to have them fried and not boiled in the jacket. That numerous class in the community, meddlers with education, will hardly be contented with the imperfect revelations of the college catalogue, and we may expect soon to hear their unsatisfied "give, give." The only persons benefited by the publication of these papers are the undergraduates of the university, who with a little shrewd cramming-up on past papers will be enabled to anticipate their future examinations. This may in the end do good by making examinations of less account, and thus counteracting the evil toward which the American College just now seems drifting—that of attaching too much importance to examinations.

N. N.

NEW YORK, Jan. 20.

Notes.

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO., following the example of other leading American publishers, have begun the publication of a 'Library of Choice Fiction.' The first issue is Mrs. Oliphant's 'At His Gates.'—Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will publish 'The Bonaparte-Patterson Marriage in 1903, and the Secret Correspondence on the Subject,' collected and arranged from inedited letters by W. T. R. Saffell; also, 'Romain Kalbris,' from the French of Hector Malot, by Mrs. Julia McNair Wright.—A biography of the late Rev. Dr. Eliphalet Nott, by Prof. Tayler Lewis and Dr. C. Van Santvoord, is in preparation and will be published by Gould & Lincoln, Boston.—J. R. Osgood & Co. are to reproduce all the works of Jules Verne, whose 'Adventures of Three Russians, etc.' was lately noticed in the *Nation*.—'Buckle's Posthumous Works and Remains,' edited by Miss

Helen Taylor, will be reprinted here by Scribner, Welford & Armstrong, as will John Timbs's 'Clubs and Club-Life in London'; a uniform illustrated edition of the 'Life and Works of Charlotte Brontë and her Sisters'; a pocket edition of the Waverley Novels; and a 'Manual of Mythology,' by Alexander S. Murray.—G. P. Putnam's Sons' spring list embraces a large number of works published jointly with London houses, of which we need only mention the reprint in one volume of the 'First Three English Books on America: 1521-1555 A.D.' to be subscribed for at \$9. Other works, manufactured here, are 'The Mother's Register,' by Prof. J. B. Fossagrives; 'A Manual of Thermometry,' by Dr. Edward Seguin; 'First Steps in Geography,' by Theodore S. Fay; 'The Berber,' a romance of Morocco, by W. S. Mayo, M.D.—A work which ought to give a great impulsion to the study and practice of phonography is the 'Dictionary of Munson's Practical Phonography,' to be published shortly by Mr. J. E. Munson, of this city. The prospectus states that "besides giving the most approved phonographic outline of each word in the language, and its position, it will present all the principles of phraseography, illustrated with numerous examples, so that the learner as well as the experienced writer will have a perfect book of reference to guide him at every point, and also securing the desirable result of absolute uniformity of writing among phonographers." Along with this Mr. Munson will also publish a much-needed 'Text-book of Munson's Phonography,' prepared with particular reference to school instruction.—Dodd & Mead have in press 'Wanderings in Spain,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, with illustrations; 'Luchmee and Dilloo,' a novel by Edward Jenkins, author of 'Ginx's Baby' and 'The Coolie,' perhaps based on his Guiana experiences; 'De Soto,' by J. S. C. Abbott; also new editions of Edward Garrett's 'Occupations of a Retired Life,' and 'Crust and Cake.' "Edward Garrett," by the way, is not, as would naturally have been inferred from our notice last week of 'Premiums Paid to Experience,' a man but a woman (Mrs. Isabella Mayo, of London), and still young. She is a leading contributor to the *Sunday Magazine*.

—In the new-born zeal of the Japanese for reform and improvement of every kind, there seems to be absolutely no limit to what they are willing to attempt. The attention of our public has been again during the past week attracted to this by the publication of a letter from Mr. Mori to Prof. Whitney of Yale College, proposing the adoption by the Japanese nation of the English language in place of its own vernacular; but of our English language improved by planing out its irregularities, and also reformed in orthography. The correspondence is not very recent, but dates from last May and June. It is to be, we understand, in due time brought out in full by Mr. Mori. In anticipation of its more public appearance, it was laid before the American Oriental Society last October, in New Haven, and discussed and commented on at some length. The sentiment of the Society appeared to sustain the principal positions taken by Professor Whitney in his reply, which are somewhat as follows: In all the history of the world, no nation has exchanged its own dialect for another because of the intrinsic superiority of that other as an instrument of thought and means of improvement; the inducement has been mainly external—the desire to enter into a community of culture with a more advanced race. This advantage the Japanese would in great measure lose if, in adopting English, they worked it over into a shape that made it strange, and even ridiculous, to its English and American users; the very slight gain in point of ease of acquisition would not at all make good the loss. For similar reasons, they cannot afford to ignore the established English orthography, although they may well enough bridge over the difficulty by first learning spoken English in an orthography accordant with that which they shall adopt for their own language, reserving the written form (pending the phonetic reform which may some day come in English itself) for a higher stage of education. But to substitute a new and wholly different language for an old one through the whole mass of a great community must be, if practicable at all, an extremely difficult and slow process; and that the educated and leading class should do their work wholly by means of a foreign tongue would have deplorable results; it would lead to the foundation of a learned caste, separated by a wide gulf from the main body of the people, and might defer indefinitely the general elevation of the nation. To prevent this, the Japanese tongue must also be the object of utmost care; it must be first emancipated from Chinese influence, and written phonetically with the Western alphabet, and then made accessible to and enriched by new stores of expression from English or other Western languages, as intercourse and the growth of knowledge shall bring them in. Perhaps, with such care, the Japanese will prove itself equal to all that the future shall demand of it; this the future alone can decide, and will. The present generation can only initiate the movement, and their leaders need to beware lest they attempt the impracticable, and put obstacles in

the way of the progress they have most at heart. There is indeed something startling in the suggestion that our language should be adopted by the leading race of the extreme East, when hitherto not one Oriental people possessing culture of its own has been found willing even to adopt our mode of writing; and we are in some danger of being thrown off our balance by the magnificence of the idea, and led to favor and abet a precipitate radicalism which will defeat its own ends.

—If we are to believe the captains of the ten police precincts in Brooklyn, life in that city is remarkably free from almost all the pests of modern civilization. The Police Commissioners recently directed the police captains to make a thorough investigation into the number of gambling-houses, "policy-shops," "panel places," and other houses of doubtful reputation in Brooklyn; and according to the reports made, there are really no places of this sort worth mentioning within the city limits. For example, we take from the *Herald* the account given of the third precinct:

"Third Precinct (Captain Daniel Ferry).—This precinct, which is one of the largest in the city and embraces the most thickly populated section of South Brooklyn, is free from the haunts of vice described in the general order to which his attention was called. In his report the veteran and energetic captain states that some time ago a man who called himself Edgar Wallace sold policy slips in a lamp store at 52 Union Street, and was arrested no less than four times for the offence. Upon one occasion Wallace was fined. If again caught, he will be attended to."

It is a little singular, considering the Arcadian condition of society described in these reports, that the board to which they were made immediately issued an order announcing that the commanding officers of the precincts or sub-precincts will, "from this date" (Jan. 9), be held responsible "for a more effective protection of the person and property of our citizens, the enforcement of all city ordinances and excise laws, the suppression of gambling, lotteries, and other violations of law, in their respective precincts." We learn from the *World* that this order was issued "in view of the recent increase in crime in Brooklyn."

—The late Rev. Joshua Leavitt, D.D., whose death occurred last week, was one of the oldest journalists in the country, having been an editor in this city for the past forty-four years. He was a native of Massachusetts, born in 1794, and graduated at Yale, after which he began the study of law, practised awhile in Putney, Vt., then prepared for the ministry, and was settled in Stratford, Conn. He left the pulpit to engage in the reform movements of the day as secretary of Temperance and Seamen's Friend societies, and at length in 1831 became editor and proprietor of the *N. Y. Evangelist*, to which he gave so decided an anti-slavery character that it could not circulate at the South, and began to lose its Northern patronage also, till his timely reporting of Dr. Finney's Revival lectures gained for the paper the then large number of 12,000 subscribers. Obligated to dispose of the *Evangelist* in consequence of the financial crash of 1837, he at once took charge of the *N. Y. Emancipator*, while in other ways actively promoting the anti-slavery cause both in the moral and political field. In 1848 he became office editor of the *Independent*, and death overtook him while still one of its editors, though his advanced age had for some years made his duties little more than nominal. He retained to the last, however, a lively interest in all matters relating to the national welfare, more especially in free-trade and cheap postage. For his writings on the former subject he was awarded a gold medal by the Cobden Society. Of late years, also, he published pamphlet essays on Denmark and Poland, in which he combated the modern principle of nationality—at least in its exaggerated pretensions—in favor of the state which is now *par excellence* the champion of nationality in Europe. Dr. Leavitt's style was clear and forcible, and in the religious controversy once so fashionable he had few superiors. He was altogether a typical New Englander for his day and generation, and will long be remembered for his services to the country, as well as for those personal qualities which ensured him a green and kindly old age.

—By the death of Lord Lytton, on Saturday last, the guild of British men of letters loses one of its most prominent members. To literature itself the loss is not so great, partly because it is now some years since Lord Lytton completed and rounded his literary career, and partly because, industrious and successful as he was, and he was very industrious and in many ways successful, to no one of his many and various works can any high rank be assigned. He was a writer of poetry and a clever one; but his metrical productions, although workmanlike and skilful, fail of being poetry. He was a dramatist, and one or two of his plays seem certain to keep the stage for many a year yet; but it is with a feeling that the theatre of our day is indeed mainly an amusement for the immature and youthful that one witnesses the love, and pride, and magnanimity, and honor, and devotion, and other fine sentiments of Clonde Melnotte and Mademoiselle Deschapelles. He was a popular novelist and won much praise, and some of it very well

deserved; but it was rarely that the judicious were not compelled to grieve over some radical fault, moral or intellectual, in one of his novels, and he may be said to have all but outlived a much-faded reputation. Perhaps it is the easier to feel a dissatisfaction with him, that clever as was his performance on almost every occasion there used formerly to be a pretentiousness about it which was out of all proportion with the result. He was perpetually talking of his "art" and then making poorish books. Is he to turn out an entirely commonplace poem about King Arthur, unreadable even by reviewers? We may be sure that it will be an epic poem in twelve books or twenty-four books, and that it will be prefaced by an elaborate theory of epic poetry, as calmly put forth as if the topic were a new one, and the theory and the poem both worth having. So, too, of his novels and his dramas, whenever he builds a good-enough wooden Gothic castle, there is sure to be put up an amount of scaffolding which nothing less than the erection of a massive and enduring structure would justify. In all this there appeared to be something of charlatanry; and it seemed altogether in harmony with the false sentiment, and false thought, and false morality, which abound in all his earlier works, and which Thackeray used to lash so unmercifully and so humorously in his representation of "Bulwig," and against which he fought so ably in the really terrible novel of 'Catherine.' Very thoroughly the castigation was deserved, for bad enough is the morality and feeble enough the thinking in such stories as 'Alice,' and 'Devereux,' and 'Paul Clifford.' These were produced, however, in days which, as this death and the rest of the long necrological roll of the last few months cause us to remind ourselves, were the days of long ago. It is nearly half a century since 'Devereux,' for instance, was the latest novel that had engaged the attention of the town. In 1829, that work of fiction appeared, when George the Fourth was king, and its author was a youth not quite twenty-four years old; but he had already published half a dozen volumes, none of which, as may be conceived, contained all the wisdom in the world, and the fame of which never reached the ears of the reigning Queen of Sheba. As years and experience sobered him, nothing was to be urged on the score of morality against his books. And very good they are, some of them, in other senses too, as is well known to all readers of 'The Caxtons,' 'My Novel,' 'What Will He Do With It?' Of 'Zanoni,' "the well-loved work of my mature manhood," and the still later 'Strange Story,' with their somewhat fustian profundities and terrors, not so much can be said; but in general the later works and essays have surely given much rational pleasure to many minds, while as to the earlier, there are at least some readers left—whether or not there are many more coming—whose hearts will always have a soft side for 'The Pilgrims of the Rhine,' those singular tourists, and even for the choice sentiments of the Maltraverses and the other gentlemen who lived and loved and had their being in the "Bulwig" period.

—Lord Lytton (Edward George Earle Lytton Bulwer Lytton) was born in May, 1805. He was emphatically literary, and is said to have begun writing at the age of six years, though it was one of his characteristic affectations throughout his life to profess small regard for his reputation as a novelist and dramatist. His inclination in this direction was fostered by his mother, a woman of some attainments, who personally supervised his early education. He graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1826, and by the end of that year had published two volumes of verse and one of prose. 'Pelham, or the Adventures of a Gentleman,' came out anonymously in 1827, and speedily became a success. In the same year occurred his marriage to an Irish lady, Miss Rosina Wheeler, of much vivacity of temper and intellect, who after a few years separated from him and thereafter made a practice of showing up her husband's foibles and faults in novels much forgotten, whose principal attraction for the public was their lively delineation of Bulwer and his friends, Dickens among others coming in for some raps. These never hurt Bulwer in reputation, and it seems to be the best-accepted opinion that they should not. Regularly with each year publishing his one or two or three volumes, we find him in 1831 a Liberal Whig member of the House of Commons, he being then Mr. Bulwer. In 1838, on the occasion of the coronation of Queen Victoria, he was made a baronet, he having been selected for that honor as a representative of literature, and the late Sir John Herschel, the astronomer, as a representative of science. It was in 1836 that Bulwer made his first attempt at dramatic literature; but the play, 'The Duchess of La Vallière,' was rather a failure than otherwise. It was like him to return to the attack. His confidence in his own ability to manufacture any species of literary work was like that which animated Southey when, as a boy, he remarked that nothing was easier than to write a tragedy. And of him, too, it might as fairly have been said as it was said of Southey, that indeed nothing is easier than to write a tragedy—except to a writer of

really good tragedies. However, in 1838, Sir Edward Bulwer produced the brilliantly successful 'Lady of Lyons'—a play which, we may be sure, will be captivating our children long after we have ceased to interest ourselves in sublunary affairs. We have not space to chronicle so much as the titles of all our author's volumes—novels, political pamphlets, translations, poems, historical works, plays, addresses, essays. He continued to work steadily in literature and politics for many years—even, we may say, till he died. In 1843, he succeeded to his mother in her valuable estate, at the same time changing his name to her maiden name of Lytton. In 1866, he was made Baron Lytton, and he will be succeeded in the title and estates by his son Robert Bulwer Lytton, who is somewhat known as a poetical writer. The latter, by the bye, was at one time attached to the British Legation at Washington; and the father was Under-Secretary of State of the Colonies in 1858 and '59, when the Hudson's Bay Company monopoly was abolished.

—The mistakes that the compositors in newspaper offices in Italy make in the spelling of English are often amusing. In the *Giornale di Modena* of December 20, 1872, is an account of the life of General Palma di Cesnola and of his discoveries, of which we have given a description on another page. Mentioning the banquet given last Thanksgiving Day in London by Mr. Cyrus W. Field, at which General Cesnola was a guest, the *Giornale* speaks of it as "il gran banchetto del *Takes pinyin day* della festa nazionale americana, tenuta a Buchingham Palace Hotel." "Takes pinyin" must be a puzzler to the young Italian eager to learn English.

MIDDLEMARCH.*

I.

THERE is a well-known remark of Novalis that character is destiny, which George Eliot criticises severely in the 'Mill on the Floss,' on the ground that destiny depends rather on circumstances than on disposition. 'Middlemarch' might have been written to illustrate at once the truth of the dictum and of the criticism. The main feature of the book is, that it is a history of the development, and generally of the tragic development, of characters which are sometimes noble, sometimes base, and generally neither very noble nor very base, amidst the commonplace circumstances of a country town. That this is the author's theme, as regards Dorothea, is patent. Her outward history, and the moral to be drawn from it, are thus summed up:

"She was spoken of (in Middlemarch) to a younger generation as a fine girl who married a sickly clergyman old enough to be her father, and in little more than a year after his death gave up her estate to marry his cousin, young enough to have been his son, with no property and not well-born. Those who had not seen anything of Dorothea observed that she could not have been a 'nice woman,' else she would not have married either the one or the other. Certainly these determining acts of her life were not ideally beautiful; they were the mixed result of a young and noble impulse struggling under prosaic conditions. Among the many remarks made on her mistakes, it was never said in the neighborhood of Middlemarch that such mistakes could not have happened if the society into which she was born had not smiled on propositions of marriage from a sickly man to a girl less than half his own age, on modes of education which make a woman's knowledge another name for motley ignorance, on rules of conduct which are in flat contradiction with its own loudly asserted beliefs. While this is the social air in which we mortals begin to breathe, there will be collisions such as those in Dorothea's life, when great feelings take the aspect of error and great faith the aspect of illusion."

This passage is remarkable in itself, but its main interest for our present purpose is that, though written of Dorothea, its spirit applies to all the principal personages of the novel. In Lydgate, in Rosamond, in Casaubon, in every other person meant to incite interest, what we are called upon to note is the action of circumstances upon character. "There is no creature so strong that it is not greatly determined by what lies outside it." This is the text of the whole work. Like most texts, it sounds at the first hearing like a truism, but it is a truism to which George Eliot's genius has restored all the vividness of a truth.

The main instance, of course, of its application is to be found in the history of Dorothea herself. The actual events of her life are summed up with fairness by Middlemarch gossip. She did marry a clergyman twice her own age, and she committed this folly without anything which, to ordinary persons, would seem a great temptation to the step. She married his cousin shortly after her first husband's death, and again acted free from the stress of any overpowering necessity. Neither act was, as George Eliot admits, "ideally beautiful," yet no one can doubt the nobleness of Dorothea's character, and few persons who study 'Middlemarch' will long maintain that her actions, blamable or praiseworthy, were not, on the whole, the most natural outcome of her disposition and

* 'Middlemarch: A Study of Provincial Life. By George Eliot.' Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons. New York: Harper & Brothers.

circumstances. From the first moment you meet her dividing her jewels with Celia, you perceive that she is full of noble aspirations, of life, ignorance, and of impatience. The beauty, and also the defects, of her nature arise from this fulness of life and impatience. She is always trying to escape from little commonplace ways and thoughts, and in the hurry to do so is constantly overlooking things which are commonplace enough, but which, unfortunately, are also true. "Celia," said Dorothea with emphatic gravity, "pray don't make any more observations of that kind." "Why not? They are quite true," returned Celia. . . . "Many things are true which only the commonest minds observe." "Then I think the commonest minds must be rather useful. I think it is a pity that Mr. Casaubon's mother had not a commoner mind, she might have taught him better." The two sisters are discussing Mr. Casaubon's disagreeable manner of eating his soup. He is already, although unknown to Celia, Dorothea's accepted lover. Dorothea had accepted him because she saw he had a "great soul," and while dreaming about great souls had neglected to make the observations which occur to commoner minds. The tragedy, in fact, of her life turns on her being so occupied with very noble notions, and so impatient to carry them out, that she failed to notice the commonplace things at her feet. In all her ways, great and small, there is manifest the rush and movement of life. Her delight in riding at a time when she thought the amusement rather worldly, her rapid driving and walking to work off her indignation at her lover's supposed treachery, her sudden, abrupt speeches, are all the outward signs of the same tendency to movement, expression, and action. This tendency is balanced by the keenness of feeling and intensity of sympathy which are sometimes seen in natures overflowing with vigor. The sympathy and the energy combined lead to the noblest act of her career, when, by a gigantic effort of self-sacrifice, she saves her supposed rival, her lover, and herself. But though in the interview with Rosamond you see all the grand side of a noble, impetuous disposition which disdains little things and breaks through petty rules, yet you are never supposed to forget that the same impetuosity is perpetually dragging Dorothea into errors, sometimes of trifling importance, but occasionally of infinite magnitude.

Two curious traits connected with the sympathetic, and at the same time vehement, turn of her mind, are specially worth notice as being true to nature but likely to escape observation. She was interested in intellectual pursuits, and her good uncle, Mr. Brooke, amongst others, obviously believes that she had carried her taste for learning beyond the certain point at which he held that every course of action ought to stop. "You have not," he says, "the same tastes as every young lady; and a clergyman and a scholar who may be a bishop, that kind of thing may suit you better than Chettam. Chettam is a good fellow, a good, sound-hearted fellow, you know, but he does not go much into ideas. I did when I was his age." But in spite of appearances, and in spite, probably, of Dorothea's own estimate of herself, she has little taste for knowledge. Her admiration for Casaubon's supposed learning really arose, as George Eliot is most careful to point out, from the idea that his wide knowledge would give her an insight into the problems of life which affected her personally. How to make and act up to a noble theory of life for herself was what she thought she wanted to achieve. What she seems truly to have needed was sympathy and a wide field for her power of affection. But for knowledge in itself she cared as little as was possible for any person gifted with keen intelligence. She was again, though some of her ardent admirers may dispute this, deficient in tact. This deficiency did not arise from obtuseness, but was, as it sometimes is, the result of impatience. The same characteristic which led her to rush nobly to Lydgate's defence without considering as accurately as more prudent persons whether his conduct might not turn out indefensible, led her also to press Mr. Casaubon on the two points on which his mind was naturally the most sore—the slow progress of his great work and the way in which he was bound, in Dorothea's view, to make restoration to Will. The latter instance is peculiarly characteristic, because, to give even a pedant his due, as regards the provision for Will, Casaubon was in the right and Dorothea distinctly in the wrong. There is, perhaps, nothing in the whole work better than the way in which the readers see that, while Dorothea had sacrificed herself through mistaking the pettiest and dreariest of pedants for a man like Locke and endowed with a great soul, they are also made to feel that this miserable scholar could hardly have met with a greater calamity than his marriage to Miss Brooke. "I," says George Eliot somewhere with the curious irony which distinguishes 'Middlemarch,' "am rather inclined to pity Mr. Casaubon;" and though this sentiment may strike some enthusiastic readers like an expression of compassion for the sufferings of an odious and cold-blooded reptile, yet it is perfectly just. You have in Mr. Casaubon the worst type of that much raised, and at best not very noble character, the gentleman and the

scholar. Except in the matter of his will, when jealousy and ill-health had broken down his gentlemanlike habits, he acts as a gentleman. He also shows distinctly enough that he really is a scholar. He has, in fact, developed a kind of dreariness of mind which could be the result of nothing but a life devoted to the cramping pursuit of inner scholarship. But for the rest, he is a man who is always deficient in vitality, eaten up by egotism and jealousy, and by an indistinct consciousness of his own incapacity. His one consolation in marriage would have been a wife stupid enough to admire him, and apathetic enough to leave him to repose. He does marry a wife who, within six months, finds out that he is a sham and suspects "the reconciliation of the mythologies" to be an imposture, who is prepared for every effort of self-sacrifice, and whose sense of duty and superabundant vitality scarcely leave a moment's true repose either to herself or to her husband. If it is possible for the fate of an utterly mean and contemptible nature to be tragic, the marriage with Miss Brooke makes life as great a tragedy to Casaubon as to his wife. Each of them is, by the irony of circumstances, placed in an utterly false position. Indeed, though Dorothea's life is, in many respects, a failure, still you close the book with a feeling that a noble nature succeeded at last in finding genuine happiness, if not in developing to true greatness. The real tragedy of 'Middlemarch,' and by far the most original part of the book, lies in the story of Lydgate, which records the steps by which genius and energy sink at last, overpowered by the force of circumstances, and of circumstances of the pettiest nature.

The flaw in Lydgate's nature, and the ultimate source of his fall, is a certain "commonness" in his views of everything unconnected with his science. Hence his liking for respectable appearances, hence his original underestimate of Miss Brooke because she was a woman a little out of the common line. Hence his immediate admiration for Rosamond and the marriage which is the bane of his life. The thing to notice is how perfectly natural is this commonness, and how naturally it works out its results. Most readers probably detest Rosamond, principally because of her complete satisfaction with herself, too much to do justice to her victim. But take Rosamond with all her self-satisfaction, pettiness, and duplicity as she is known to the reader, and as, be it remarked, she could be known to nobody else, and she still remains a woman with whom ninety-nine men out of a hundred would most indubitably fall in love. Nor, again, was Lydgate's commonness the only cause of his failure. He fell as men do fall, quite as much by his merits as by his defects. Being a man of genuinely strong affections, he was always in dealing with Rosamond at the untold disadvantage of loving much and scarcely being loved at all. Every pain he gave her was a double pang to himself, whilst her flinty nature was incapable of feeling that she gave pain to others, or of suffering from any pain except mortification to herself. Lydgate's affection, as far as it had any effect on Rosamond, disgusted her, for it deprived him of the kind of calmness which might perhaps have impressed her imagination, or at least cowed her will.

The action and reaction of Lydgate's character upon Rosamond, and Rosamond's upon Lydgate, is merely one example of that power of analyzing the effect of one nature upon another which is one of the most marked features of George Eliot's mind. Contrast her writings, for example, with the works of Thackeray. You will find in the latter a number of characters quite as striking and perhaps more consistent than those painted by the author of 'Middlemarch.' But with rare exceptions, the characters of Thackeray each stand out distinct and separate from one another. You know Ethel, and you know Clive. You perfectly understand Becky or Sir Pitt Crawley, but you do not generally see, and Thackeray does not generally care to make you see, the exact influence say of Ethel upon Clive. You do not feel that they, acting together, are something essentially different from what either of them would have been uninfluenced by the other. But throughout 'Middlemarch' the influence of mind upon mind is never left out of sight. Dorothea is half-checked, half-irritated by Celia. She is oppressed in the presence of Casaubon, and develops freely under the sunshine of Will's superficial geniality. Casaubon himself is constantly suffering from the consciousness that he is surrounded by unadmiring acquaintance. Lydgate's impatience is brought into play by Rosamond's cold-hearted impassibility, and Rosamond herself chills into something slightly more icy than she was by nature under disgust at Lydgate's violence. Take what page you will of the book, and you will find examples of this play of character upon character, and you will also find that, in general, by a strange irony, the inferior character warps and in a sense triumphs over the superior nature.

For, after all, if it were necessary to fix upon any one quality as the characteristic trait of the book, few attentive critics would hesitate to name irony, taking a very extensive sense of the term, as its distinguishing feature. The avowed irony of much of the writing is too obvious to call for much notice. What is better worth observation is the indirect forms in which the

same tendency shows itself. There is, for example, a constant irony of situation. Misfortunes befall men just at the moment when they feel the safest from them. Bulstrode buys a charming house, and walks there on a summer evening wrapped in satisfactory religious meditation. He finds in the garden the villain who makes his life a misery. At the cost of something very like murder, he rids himself of his tormentor. He rides home happy after weeks of misery, and almost immediately discovers that the disgrace he had risked his soul to avoid has fallen upon him. This irony of situation often appears in George Eliot's other works, as, for example, where Arthur Donnithorne returns to take possession of his estate, full of good spirits and good intentions, and finds that his intrigue with Hetty has led to all its miserable results. But this contrast between a person's own estimate of his circumstances and his real position is by no means the most subtle way in which George Eliot draws the eternal contrast between what seems and what is. It appears often in the merest turn of a sentence. What, for example, can be a more bitter sarcasm between a man's own feeling of misery and his friend's vapid consolations than Mr. Brooke's advice to Casaubon, broken-hearted with the knowledge that his life would not suffice to finish his work?

"Yes, yes," said Mr. Brooke, "get Dorothea to play backgammon with you in the evenings, and shuttlecock. Now I don't know a finer game than shuttlecock for the daytime. . . . But you must unbend, you know. Why, you might take to some light study, conchology, now—I always think that must be a light study—or get Dorothea to read you light things, Smollett, 'Roderick Random,' 'Humphrey Clinker.' They are a little broad, but she may read anything now she is married, you know."

"I never give up anything that I choose to do," said Rosamond (referring to her engagement). "God bless you," said Lydgate, kissing her again. This constancy in the right place was adorable.

These sentences are simple enough; but any one who has followed Lydgate's career to its close will hardly read them without something like a chill of horror, for Lydgate pours blessings upon that wretched constancy of purpose which constitutes his lifelong torture. Exactly the same characteristic appears in the conversations of common people, auctioneers, horse-dealers, and landladies, in which George Eliot delights. They are no doubt amusing and truthful enough in themselves, but they derive a peculiar gusto from their presenting an unconscious parody on the thoughts and language of educated persons. But all the minor forms of irony sink to nothing compared with the irony of the lesson enforced by the conclusion of 'Middlemarch' itself. Every one who has commenced life with high aspirations either, like Lydgate, ends in misery, or, like Dorothea, purchases happiness by foregoing all ideal aims. The only persons who prosper are either selfish or commonplace. Fred, who is the very model of an ordinary selfish young man, ends as a prosperous gentleman. Will, who throughout life is and could be nothing but an amateur, gains all his wishes. Rosamond, after causing misery to others which she had not the sense even to perceive, is "rewarded" by getting rid of her husband, whom she did not like, and keeping his fortune and position, which were sufficient to make her happy. The conclusion of the whole matter is, that happiness depends on the adaptation of character to circumstances, and that, therefore, in a commonplace world, commonplace characters alone have a fair chance of happiness.

Fine Arts.

THE CESNOLA COLLECTION OF ANTIQUITIES FROM CYPRUS.

IT has been known for some time past that this collection of antiquities has been secured by the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of the Fine Arts as the foundation of the archaeological department. It has just arrived in New York, and, although some time must elapse before it can be properly arranged for exhibition, our readers may be glad to have a more complete account of it than has been given in such brief notices as have already appeared in the journals, including our own.

During the past autumn and early winter the collection has been on view in London, where the present writer had an opportunity of seeing it, and there has been but one opinion among those competent to judge as to its extraordinary interest and importance, as well in the illustration of ancient history as of ancient art. A very general regret is expressed in England and on the Continent that, through the supineness of the authorities of the British Museum, a collection so precious to the scholar and to the artist should have been lost to Europe. Since the days when the Elgin Marbles came to England there has been no collection of works of ancient art of such importance as this brought to the country. Layard's Ninevite discoveries had a more novel interest, and his collection gave a view of a less known

civilization; Sir Charles Fellows's researches in Lycia and Mr. Newton's at Halicarnassus brought to light extremely interesting works of art and antiquity; but they are not to be compared, either in extent and variety or in their illustration of the general history of ancient art, with this collection made by General di Cesnola.

It will be remembered that General di Cesnola was one of those foreign officers who offered their swords to our Government at the beginning of the rebellion, and one of the most distinguished during the war for the efficiency and brilliancy of his services. Very shortly after the war he received from our Government the appointment of Consul at Cyprus, and there he has resided, with short intervals of absence, up to the present time. His consular duties were not so arduous that he was unable to devote a portion of his time to other pursuits. His taste and culture led him to the study of the history and art of the island, and he soon convinced himself that, although both the French and English had at times made partial explorations of its soil for such antiquities as it might contain, much more remained to be brought to light than had as yet been discovered.

From a very early period Cyprus was the meeting-place of three distinct currents of civilization. It attracted the Phœnicians, it felt the influence of Egypt, it was long held by the Greeks. Its temples have been the resort of people of many nations, and its devotion to Venus was known throughout the ancient world. Pausanias reports the tradition that when Agapenor led a colony from Troy to Cyprus, and founded there, at Paphos, the famous temple dedicated to Venus Aphrodite, the Cypriotes already adored this goddess in a temple dedicated to her worship in the city of Golgos. And Catullus, addressing her, says: "Quæque regis Golgos, quæque Idalium frondosum."

The fame of Paphos eclipsed that of Golgos, however, and in the course of time the latter city was deserted, and disappeared; its very site became uncertain.

General di Cesnola, having secured a firman from the Porte authorizing him to make excavations, and to retain such articles as he might discover; having gathered such information as the ancient geographers afford; having personally inspected the localities, and acquainted himself with the lines of former exploration, set to work with intelligence and energy.

Excavations in the island are easily made, so far as the spade is concerned, for the soil is usually light and the climate dry; but they are attended with two special difficulties—one, that there exists no trustworthy tradition in regard to the ancient sites; the other, that no remains of ancient buildings remain above the ground. The ancient Cypriotes did not apparently use stone except in the foundation of their most important edifices; the walls were built of sun-dried brick, which, falling to ruin, covered the foundations, and gradually, under the influence of the weather, changed into a soil hardly distinguishable from that of the surrounding land, and assumed a natural surface that completely disguised the artificial form of the ancient structure.

After many minor excavations, chiefly among tombs, in which objects of more or less interest were brought to light, it was in the winter and spring of 1870 that General di Cesnola made the discovery which has secured for his name a high place in the list of explorers, and which has resulted in the unearthing of an unrivalled collection of the most interesting works of Cypriote art. Some years previously, the Count de Vogué had in vain sought for the necropolis and temple of Golgos. General di Cesnola, taking up the work where Vogué had left it, came first on the necropolis, and, on the 6th of March, had the good fortune to discover the remains of the temple itself—a temple unique not only in construction, but in the character of its contents. We take the following statement from a brief account of his discovery, which he addressed to the Royal Academy of Science at Turin:

"The area of the temple was well marked by the foundation of stone that I found at the depth of about two metres. It was sixty English feet in length by thirty in width; and in this narrow space were discovered about one thousand statues. They were unearthed with care; all were more or less mutilated, which would prove that the temple was destroyed either by a band of foreign invaders or Christian fanatics, probably the latter. About a third of the statues were of natural size, several were gigantic, and one must have been truly colossal, judging from the head, which was the only part found, and was one metre two centimetres in length.

"The form of the temple was quadrangular. From the bases of the columns which remained at the two doors it was apparent that the building had been of the Doric or Ionic order of architecture. The columns no longer existed, probably because they had been of wood, of which, Pausanias informs us, columns were often made, especially in Asia Minor. . . . Along the longitudinal walls were found many pedestals, arranged in several files, of all dimensions, some of them with bas-reliefs, some with Cypriot inscriptions, but the greater part without either.

"In the interior of the temple were three double files of pedestals, upon which apparently statues were originally placed, back to back—an arrangement which may serve to explain why many of the statues are wrought only in front.

"Among the ruins were found two broken stone seats and several vases of calcareous stone, and, scattered about everywhere, were many votive objects of stone, such as eyes, fingers, ears, figures of women with babies at the breast, very similar to such as, made of gold or silver, may be seen in Christian sanctuaries at the present day. Only two coins were discovered."

That this was the temple of Venus seems likely from various indications, especially from the fact that many of the statues had doves in their hands, the bird sacred to the goddess. There were indeed statues of Hercules and of Apollo also found, but their number was comparatively insignificant; and there is reason for believing that the ancients sometimes admitted into their temples images of other gods than the special divinity to whom the building might be consecrated.

But it was not alone the number of the statues that made this discovery remarkable. It was the extraordinary variety of execution and of type which they presented, affording the visible history of the influences to which the Cypriot artists had been exposed, and presenting a series of works of the most characteristic quality from a period, at the lowest computation, more than a thousand years before Christ down to the epoch of the Roman dominion in Cyprus, not long before the Christian era. The types of Assyrian, Phœnician, Egyptian, Greek, and Greco-Roman art are distinctly represented in this most curious assemblage; and it is no exaggeration to say that no other single building has ever afforded a collection representative of so long a period in the history of art, and of so many diverse types. This collection affords the links required for binding together the history of Greek art with that of the nations that had preceded it in civilization. Here the various arts had met as at a central point, and blended.

That the statues are of Cyprian workmanship is shown not only by their being carved from a soft calcareous stone, native to the island, but also by their countenances, at every period and under every influence, retaining some of the marked traits of the peculiar Cypriote physiognomy.

General di Cesnola, in his report to the Turin Academy, speaks as we have seen of the statues being all more or less mutilated; but many of them, though their heads may have been broken off at the neck, or their feet separated from their legs, or they may have suffered in other ways, are yet in a state of the most astonishing conservation. They are broken, but the parts are whole, and when put together the break no longer appears. The dry soil and air have preserved them so surprisingly that many, even of the oldest among them, are as fresh, as perfect in sharpness of cutting and in delicacy of touch, as if they had but just left the workshop.

But very few of the statues belong to the finest period of Greek art; and

no one among them lays claim to exceptional beauty of form or figure, or any high imaginative work. The coarseness of grain of the stone of which they are made prevents the last refinement of modelling, and no Cypriote artist, so far as is known, was famed for genius in ancient times. But many of the statues have great beauties of detail, and exhibit ornamentation of exquisite design, and there are very few of them that are not distinguished by a high degree of individual characterization.

The collection contains, beside the statues, a vast number of objects in terra-cotta, bronze, and gold, found in the precincts or neighborhood of the temple, or in the tombs of Golgos and Idalion. In all, there are more than ten thousand articles—terra-cotta busts, of which some are of exquisite beauty, from the best epoch of Greek art; vases, cups, toys, lamps—a multitude of objects of curious interest in illustrating the ancient civilization. It is impossible in our limits to give even an enumeration of them. The collection contains specimens of almost every department of ancient fictile art.

The archæologic importance of the collection is at least equal to its artistic interest. It contains a larger body of inscriptions in the unknown Cypriote tongue than are to be found in all the museums of Europe put together. To decipher this language, to classify thoroughly the various works of art, to illustrate them from literature and history, and history and literature in return from them, will be a task for scholars for years to come.

It is fortunate that such a rare and interesting collection of antiquities should have been obtained for our chief museum. The trustees have shown excellent judgment in securing it. It raises the museum at once to a place of consideration. The same good judgment will lead to the most liberal use of these treasures. Before the collection left England permission was granted to the authorities of the British Museum to take casts from the inscriptions, and photographs from some of the most interesting objects. There are many duplicate specimens in the collection, and the trustees would do well to offer them in exchange for other works of ancient art to the great public museums in Europe. It is not only the British Museum that was in negotiation for the collection previous to its purchase for America; the Louvre and the museum at Berlin were desirous to secure the whole or a great part of it.

General di Cesnola is to be heartily congratulated on the brilliant results of his excavations. He proposes, we understand, to return to Cyprus and to renew his diggings. Paphos is yet untouched, and its famous temple may give to us even more precious works than those that Golgos has afforded. It would be well if the trustees of our museum could arrange with General di Cesnola for the acquisition of what he may hereafter discover.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 20, 1873.

WE are able this week to report the return of the money market to its usual settled condition at this season of the year. With the exception of one or two days, when in some cases 7 per cent. coin was paid, the ruling rate on call loans has been 6 to 7 per cent., with the supply at the close of business hours in excess of the demand. The more settled condition of the money market has stimulated business in commercial paper. The sales of the week have been at rates ranging from 8 to 10 per cent., and we have heard of some extra good names going as low as 7½ per cent.

The city banks are overloaded with national bank notes to such an extent that they have been glad to sell them to brokers at a discount of ¼ per cent. in order to get rid of them. At certain times of the year these notes cause great trouble to the banks here, owing to the fact of there being no place for their redemption. To assort and send them back to the banks by which they were issued would cause too much trouble and loss of time, and it has been frequently the habit of the New York banks to loan them out on time, from one to three weeks, free of interest, with the agreement that the loan should be paid in legal tenders when due. Numerous plans have been proposed for the establishment of redemption agencies in this city, but, for some reason, they have received no more than passing attention; probably the magnitude of the undertaking is too appalling.

The bank statement for the week ending January 18 is favorable, and shows that the banks have gained \$309,075 in their net reserve, and now hold \$5,499,100 in excess of the required 25 per cent. The following is the statement for the week compared with that of the previous week ending January 11:

	Jan. 11.	Jan. 18.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$375,552,800	\$378,209,600	Inc. \$2,656,800
Specie.....	23,539,100	21,110,800	Dec. 1,428,300
Circulation.....	27,461,600	27,542,200	Inc. 80,600
Deposits.....	207,441,500	212,583,200	Inc. 5,146,700
Legal tenders.....	40,876,700	44,420,900	Inc. 3,544,200

The following analysis shows the relation of the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Jan. 11.	Jan. 18.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$23,539,100	\$21,110,800	Dec. \$1,428,300
Legal tenders.....	40,876,700	44,420,900	Inc. 3,544,200
Total reserve.....	\$63,415,800	\$65,531,700	Inc. \$2,115,900
Circulation.....	\$27,461,600	\$27,542,200	Inc. 80,600
Deposits.....	207,441,500	212,583,200	Inc. 5,146,700
Total liabilities.....	\$234,903,100	\$240,130,400	Inc. \$5,227,300
25 per cent. reserve.....	58,725,775	60,032,600	Inc. 1,306,825
Excess over legal reserve.....	4,690,025	5,499,100	Inc. 809,075

The feeling among stock speculators in Wall Street is one of disappointment at the delay in the upward movement of prices, which it was confidently expected would follow the return of easy money. The "January rise" has not yet taken place, and the probable reason is, that the large operators who lead and control the market, although not short of stocks, prefer to see prices recede so as to enable them to "load up" at lower figures, as well as to "shake out" the small operators who are holding on to their stocks with the idea of selling out to any one who will buy at an advance, while the leading operators would prefer to buy at a decline. Another reason which has probably induced the leading spirits of the Street to hold off from organizing a "bull movement" and running prices up from what they were at the beginning of the year, is that the prices of stocks at that time were considerably higher than they have usually been at corresponding periods, and there was consequently less margin for an advance.

Business for the week at the Stock Exchange has been moderately active; the range of prices has been quite small, and the quotations of the leading active stocks have undergone but little change since our last report. The depression in Union Pacific, which on Monday sold at 34, was followed later in the week by a sharp reaction of three per cent., the stock selling at 37 on Thursday. Rumor had it that Washington parties, who thought that the Crédit Mobilier investigations would send the price lower, had sold the stock short to a large extent, and that the "old soldiers" of the Street had

quietly turned the tables upon them and bid up the price, which caused the Washington parties to buy back the stock, that they had sold short, at a handsome loss. The speculation in Erie at times has been quite spirited, and the transactions in it have been larger than those in any other stock. On Wednesday the price advanced to 62½ from 58½ on Monday, the lowest point of the week. The stock of the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad Co. has rallied from the recent depression that had settled upon it in consequence of the extremely low price of coal, and the quarrel that has been going on between that Company and the Central Railroad Co. of New Jersey, relative to the consolidation of the earnings of the two roads, which was repudiated by the latter Company. The reported combination of several of the large railroad and canal companies, engaged in the transportation and mining of coal, to establish, by arbitrary measures, its future price in the different markets, has been the cause of the advance in the price of the stock from 94½ to 98—the Company being one of the largest producers in the country. The low price of coal last year caused the passing of its last two quarterly dividends. The combination proposed for the purpose of maintaining the price of coal at a figure which will pay to mine and ship it is very likely to succeed, if harmony continues to exist among the different parties who compose it, as they own and control an enormous quantity of coal lands, and nearly all the lines of transportation between the mines and the markets.

The price of Michigan Central has improved, and the last sales were at 108; the lowest point at which the stock sold during the recent decline was 104.

The Treasury, in its weekly bond purchase, on Wednesday, was again unsuccessful in obtaining the \$1,000,000 5-20's advertised for, the total amount offered being only \$218,600, at 111-98 to 112-38. \$197,600 were taken at 111-98 to 111-99. The price of gold was 112¼ at the time the purchases were made, and the lowest price of the day was 112, from which it will be seen that Mr. Boutwell still construes the lowest price of the day as the market price. Government bonds have been firm throughout the week, with a very strong feeling at the close on Saturday, occasioned by the firmness and higher price of gold. The scarcity of bonds continues.

Efforts are being made to pay the interest upon the bonds of the State of Louisiana, due January 1, and it is rumored that it will soon be paid. There was little business done in State bonds during the week.

The railroad bond market has been fairly active, and a well-distributed business has been done. Boston, Hartford and Erie first-mortgage bonds continue on the downward track, selling at 42½ at the close of the week.

At a meeting on Tuesday the directors of the Erie Railway Company voted to issue \$10,000,000 7 per cent. convertible gold bonds, and limited the price at which they should be sold to par. The object of this issue of bonds is to make improvements on the road by laying steel rails and a double track on some portions of it where needed, and also to lay a third rail. The broad gauge of the Erie (6 feet) is a serious drawback to the Company, and the change to the ordinary gauge of four feet eight and a half inches will place the road in a condition to enable it to accommodate the traffic coming from and going on to connecting roads, without necessitating the loss of time and cost of labor in breaking bulk. There have been doubts expressed as to the ability of the managers of the Company to negotiate the sale of the \$10,000,000 bonds at the limit fixed upon. Unquestionably they will have to look to Europe as the market in which to place them, especially to London, where a strange infatuation has existed in regard to the value of the securities of this road. Already the road is mortgaged to the amount of \$30,000,000, which is a prior lien upon the property, to say nothing of over \$20,000,000 of leases.

The large importations of the week have been the cause of an advance in gold from 112¼, the price at the commencement of the week, to 113¼, the highest price, on Saturday. The report of the Custom-house of the week's imports shows them to have been \$11,000,000. The shipments for the week were unimportant, amounting to only \$323,155, which makes the total amount shipped since January 1, 1873, \$3,855,308, against \$945,292 for the same period in 1872.

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